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SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT AND INTERNATIONAL ECONOMIC COOPERATION: TRADE AND DEVELOPMENT

A development strategy for island developing countries: new challenges, prospects and opportunities for cooperative action

Report of the Secretary-General

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I. INTRODUCTION

1. The General Assembly, in its resolution 47/186 of 22 December 1992, welcomed the efforts made by island developing countries to adopt policies that address their specific problems, including efforts at regional cooperation and integration, and called upon those countries to continue to pursue, in accordance with their national objectives, policies and priorities, further measures to increase their international competitiveness, render their economies less vulnerable by developing the capacity to respond to shocks due to natural disasters and external economic changes, and promote sustainable development. It also appealed to the international community, inter alia, to maintain and, if possible, increase the level of concessional financial and technical assistance provided to island developing countries; to consider improving trade and/or other existing arrangements for assisting island developing countries in redressing adverse effects on their export earnings and to consider wider adoption of such arrangements; and to continue to ensure that a concerted effort is made to assist island developing countries, at their request, in improving their institutional and administrative capacities and in satisfying their overall needs with regard to the development of human resources.

2. The Assembly also invited island developing countries to intensify further their regional and subregional cooperative arrangements, particularly to address the problem of high-cost economies, by developing, where appropriate, common services to reduce the high per capita costs of infrastructure and public services and by developing regional transport and communications systems. It also urged relevant organizations of the United Nations system to take adequate measures to respond positively to the particular needs of island developing countries and continue to report on such measures through the United Nations Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD), as appropriate. Furthermore, the Assembly requested the Secretary-General to continue to monitor and review in a coordinated manner, inter alia, within the Inter-Agency Committee on Sustainable Development and the secretariats of the Commission on Sustainable Development and UNCTAD, the problems of island developing countries, in particular those of small island developing countries. The Secretary-General was also requested to report to the General Assembly at its forty-ninth session on the implementation of the resolution. The present report has been prepared in response to that request.

3. As part of the preparation of this report, the Deputy to the Secretary-General of UNCTAD and Officer-in-Charge of UNCTAD sent a note verbale to the Governments of the States members of UNCTAD and a letter to all relevant international intergovernmental and non-governmental organizations requesting them to provide information regarding the implementation of resolution 47/186. The summary of replies received so far is contained in an addendum to the present report (A/49/227/Add.1). This report specifically focuses on those provisions of the resolution which relate to the objectives, priorities and policies of island developing countries and the measures that are being taken to increase their international competitiveness and reduce their vulnerability, as well as to the modalities for future action. The report draws on the results of previous and ongoing work by UNCTAD as well as by relevant institutions on behalf of island developing countries.

4. In section two, the report summarizes the nature of the challenges facing island developing countries, particularly the small and remote ones among them. In section three, the actual and prospective development opportunities are considered, especially those that accrue from expanded and more effective regional cooperative and integration arrangements in selected key areas. In section four, a strategic framework for future action is outlined, with emphasis on regional initiatives and international support requirements.

II. THE CHALLENGES FACING SMALL ISLAND DEVELOPING COUNTRIES

A. Some basic considerations

5. Many of the problems of the island developing countries are those of development in general and are not exclusive to this category. Nevertheless, island developing countries, in particular small island developing countries, suffer from certain specific problems, such as poor resource endowment; dependence on few primary export products which are highly vulnerable to changes in international commodity prices; a small domestic market; limited industrialization; heavy dependence on imports and foreign capital; high per capita expenditure in administrative, social and physical infrastructure; proneness to natural disasters; and diseconomies of scale with disproportionate costs associated with indivisible items of infrastructure and services.

6. Small island developing countries include nine least developed countries: Cape Verde, Comoros, Haiti, Maldives, Samoa, Sao Tome and Principe, Solomon Islands and Vanuatu (States Members of the United Nations) and Kiribati and Tuvalu. Until less than two decades ago, almost all small island developing countries were colonies or dependencies (or, in the remaining very few cases, at least protectorates) of metropolitan Powers. Some are still not independent. Traditional links were mostly with European Powers, but increasingly links have been forged with closer industrialized countries: the United States of America and Canada for the Caribbean, Australia and New Zealand for the Pacific and South Africa for the Indian Ocean.

7. In 1991 some 59 of the island developing countries had a population of less than 1 million (see table 1 for a list of the countries considered). In respect of land area, 62 countries had land areas of less than 20,000 square kilometres and 44 countries less than 1,000 square kilometres. With respect to remoteness, most small island developing countries are 200 to 1,000 km from the nearest continent. They need to be self-sufficient in their infrastructure, such as ports and airports, whereas, in a small continental country, these may be available in a neighbouring country and accessible by road. The islands of the Caribbean are separated from a market of more than 500,000 people by an average distance of 700 km, those of the West Indian Ocean by 1,800 km, and those of the Central and Western Pacific by nearly 3,000 km. The small island developing countries of the Indian Ocean and the Pacific are particularly remote from the land masses which hold their trading partners, their migrant destinations, their sources of tourism and their previous political and economic ties. As a result, the costs of imported goods are particularly high and high freight rates also militate against the competitiveness of exports. For example, ton-mile rates for copra and coconut oil between Tonga and the European Community (Rotterdam)

are 70 to 100 per cent higher than the rates from the Philippines to Rotterdam, although the distance between Nuku'alofa (Tonga) and Rotterdam is more than 2,000 nautical miles shorter than the distance between Davao (Philippines) and Rotterdam. 1/

8. Dispersion is another factor which affects the development of archipelagic small island developing countries. This is most marked in the widely dispersed small islands of the Pacific. For example, Kiribati is spread over a length equal to the width of the continental United States of America, but has a population of only 74,000 (1991). Having a national population spread over different islands can result in cultural and linguistic diversity, which may have an adverse impact on development and may also cause an erosion of national integration. Vanuatu, as an extreme example, has 110 languages for a population of 151,000 on 74 inhabited islands spread over a distance of 720 km.

9. Outer islands in archipelagic countries have a common feature of being generally less developed than the main island or islands in the group. They are removed from the seats of government and commerce, and international air and sea services, and usually have a less well developed social and physical infrastructure. As a result of the problems of transport, telecommunications, and scarcity of professional workforce (teachers, nurses, engineers, etc.), it is more difficult to attract public sector workers and private investors there, which leads to a spiral of economic and social deprivation. Often there are even more severe diseconomies of scale in the peripheral islands than in the capital island. Differences of language or culture can lead to a perception of the outer islands being ignored or treated as marginal by their main island compatriots.

10. Small island developing countries are in various ways vulnerable. This vulnerability is a more common phenomenon in the Pacific than in the Caribbean, where such countries have a more sophisticated economic base. Small island developing countries are vulnerable to external economic shocks and have a basic lack of economic resilience. They are also physically fragile in respect of non-renewable resources, economic and demographic pressures on renewable resources, biodiversity and rising sealevels.

11. Most small island developing countries have economies where aid plays an important role. Official development assistance was equivalent to 20 to 40 per cent of GNP of most least developed small island developing countries in 1991, a year in which it exceeded the entire GNP for Sao Tome and Principe (see table 5). This can have a stabilizing effect on the economy, so long as it is sustained. In some of the small island developing countries, aid disbursements have in fact been falling in real terms, and the creditworthiness of smaller economies has been diminished by their vulnerability. On average these countries face a serious debt problem, however. Debt as a proportion of annual GNP rarely falls below 40 per cent, and in 1990 exceeded total GDP in Dominica (125 per cent), Vanuatu (206 per cent) and Sao Tome and Principe (352 per cent) (see table 6B). Debt servicing represents a significant proportion of government expenditure. In most of the least developed small island developing countries for which data are available, this proportion is over 10 per cent. Debt servicing is often paid from aid disbursements, producing a debt cycle.

B. The implications of a volatile external sector

12. Island developing countries, particularly small and remote ones, have narrowly specialized economies, often based on a few export agricultural commodities with minimal ability to influence terms of trade. World prices of commodities such as cocoa, coffee, copra and cotton fluctuate greatly. 2/ Larger producers are better placed to influence terms of trade, and to bridge short-run dips in demand or price at the expense of smaller countries that exhibit a high degree of export instability. Where land-based mineral exports are a major source of income, as in Nauru, they are limited in supply. With regard to manufacturing exports, investors in light industry (for example, electronic assembly, garment making) have been attracted to several island developing countries, especially to larger island countries such as Mauritius and Sri Lanka, usually relying on imported components and always producing goods for re-export. The enterprises, usually part of a transnational corporation, are often encouraged to settle in a particular island because of the existence of a free zone or tax holidays offered by the Government. While such investment results in the immediate creation of employment and increased local earnings, the disadvantages are that (a) companies are generally footloose and move on elsewhere when they see a comparative advantage in doing so, especially once the tax holidays come to an end in the initial host country; (b) there is often little local investment or skill development in the host country; and (c) working conditions and wage levels may be driven to below previously accepted national standards by the competition to attract the industry. The demise of the electronics and the garment industries in Barbados over the last 15 years is an example that explains unprecedented levels of unemployment (30 per cent during the period 1992-1994).

13. Many small island developing countries are increasingly looking to international tourism as a way of increasing invisible export earnings. Tourism can have considerable economic benefits but also has some drawbacks as a source of income. Long-haul tourism, which is the market for most small island developing countries, is seasonal at the origin or the destination end, and is prone to fluctuations according to international economic recession, changes in fashion, and competition from new destinations. The infrastructure and services needed to support the tourism product are costly and usually require both foreign investment and foreign staff, which then lead to leakages of earnings. Local people face the risk of having access only to low-paid jobs, while the society as a whole may see an erosion of the traditional culture. Water supplies and other utilities and services are often strained to a meet a higher per capita demand by tourists, and waste disposal can become a major source of localized land and sea pollution. There can be other effects on the ecosystem, from beach erosion to damage to reefs and fragile wildlife areas, etc. Cruise ship tourism, which is greatly on the increase and for which small island developing countries are particularly attractive, carries its own problems of requiring expensive berthing facilities, swamping the amenities of the port of call, and leaving little behind in the way of value added to the local economy from their typical expenditure on imported duty-free goods.

14. Other service industries in the fields of offshore banking and company or ship registration are prima facie more attractive but the market is fiercely competitive. Island countries with advanced information and communications

technologies and political stability are more favourably placed for these activities, such as the northern Caribbean and western Atlantic islands. There is, however, a risk that undesirable economic actors may be attracted by the potential for money laundering.

15. One common source of income for small island developing countries is remittances from migrants. Out-migration is a long tradition in island communities and some metropolitan Powers have special arrangements for temporary or permanent entry by citizens of selected island countries. Education and exposure to outside influences, with a concomitant breakdown in traditional cultural ties, contribute to the level of migration, probably to a greater extent than poverty does. As a result of out-migration, population pressure has been lessened, and in some small island developing countries, the population has actually fallen. In many cases, migrants are often the most educated or skilled members of the island communities. Some exhibit "circular mobility", returning home after a period of study or work experience overseas. Others do not return during their working lives. Increasingly tight regulation on immigration in most industrialized countries is, however, slowing this trend. There is also a reversal of migration trends in the English-speaking Caribbean, with migrants to the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland and North America in the 1950s now retiring from their work and returning home. Although they are generally self-sufficient financially, retirees may cause some strain in the local health and welfare services in the long run.

C. Transport and communications constraints

16. Transport costs to and within island developing countries are high, for a number of reasons, particularly in the case of small islands. Distance, both from mainland ports and from major shipping lines, and the low levels of demand for cargo or passenger loads make ports of call unattractive for long-haul air or shipping lines, particularly in the Indian Ocean and the Pacific. Unreliable transport due to commercial factors or bad weather places a financial burden on importers, who have to take large consignments and stockpile goods in case of future non-delivery.

17. In the 1980s, the trend towards longer-range aircraft and routes has hindered the economic development of many small island developing countries in the Pacific, as airlines have withdrawn from several island destinations or dropped seating space and cargo capacity. There has been a converse effect in all but the smallest islands of the Caribbean, where the development of airport infrastructure has led to increased levels of direct long-haul air services, spurred by tourism. While island-based airline fleets have in many cases been upgraded in recent years, they often have inadequate landing rights and limited technical expertise. Especially in the Pacific, foreign airlines control most of the seating capacity, especially on tourist routes. As a result, the tourist industry and some other sectors of the economy are heavily dependent on external ownership and decisions. Foreign airlines are often owners or major shareholders in the tourist facilities of small island developing countries, including hotels and ground transport. Regional cooperation in the airline industry offers prospects for success, but it has not generally been achieved. With regard to inter-island air services, aircraft serving most of the islands

have to fly into grass airstrips because of the cost of installing and maintaining paved airfields. Planes that provide an appropriate level of supply to demand are generally small, slow, expensive and weather prone. For some of the longer inter-island routes in the Pacific, relatively large aircraft have to be used, despite low traffic flows, in order to meet the requirement for multi-engined operation over water and to provide an adequate flying range.

18. Developments in containerization and bulk transport have similarly changed the nature of sea transport, leading to the centralization of trade and the marginalization of small operators. Several small island developing countries have, therefore, to incur the costs of constructing or expanding deep-water harbours and owning container handling equipment. They face difficulties in trying to accommodate large sea-going vessels with inadequate facilities. For outer island air and sea services in any archipelago, there are special problems. Direct international transport links to outer islands are rare and mostly hubbed on the main island(s). Some Pacific archipelagos are only accessible from their capital through a second country. Inter-island services are normally costly and often unreliable, with irregular services.

19. Safety of marine operations is of particular concern in Melanesian Pacific islands. There are hazards from seasonal weather, poorly charted reefs and shoals, cost-cutting operating practices, a lack of technical knowledge, competence or care on behalf of crews, a dearth of life-saving equipment and the absence of up-to-date marine laws and regulations or the means and staff to enforce them. Lack of skills in shipping management and route planning renders the services less efficient than they ought to be.

D. Proneness to natural disasters

20. Island developing countries, particularly small and remote ones, are, by their geographical location, prone to natural disasters such as earthquakes, tidal waves/tsunamis/storm surges, cyclones and hurricanes. Such disasters have much greater and more widespread economic consequences in small islands. The most recent data attempting to measure the degree to which countries are prone to disasters in terms of their economic impact show that, of the 25 most disaster-prone countries in the period 1970 to 1989, 13 were island developing countries. Particularly disaster-prone over the period were Montserrat, the Cook Islands, Vanuatu, Tokelau, Dominica, Saint Lucia, Antigua and Barbuda, Saint Kitts and Nevis, the Comoros, Saint Vincent and the Grenadines, Jamaica, Mauritius and Tonga.

21. The economic damage caused by the average significant disaster, expressed as a percentage of 1980 GNP, was 58 per cent in Vanuatu (which experienced four such disasters over the period), 47 per cent in Dominica (which experienced three), 40 per cent in Saint Lucia (which experienced two), 20 per cent in the Comoros (which experienced three), 18 per cent in Saint Vincent and the Grenadines (which experienced two), 13 per cent in Jamaica (which experienced five), 10 per cent in Mauritius (which experienced four) and 10 per cent in Tonga (which experienced five). Although large-scale disasters are not confined to island developing countries, natural disasters are a particular problem in those countries because the effects are pervasive and often totally devastating.

22. In 1979, for example, hurricane David left three quarters of the population of Dominica homeless and destroyed banana plantations, the predominant agricultural and trade activity. Hurricane Allen struck Dominica in the following year. In the Pacific, cyclones followed by prolonged drought in 1983 and 1985 damaged sugar and other crops in Fiji. As a consequence, the sugar output fell by more than 40 per cent. In the Caribbean, the eruption of the Soufrière volcano in Saint Vincent caused devastating material damage. In Saint Lucia, Grenada and Saint Vincent, on three occasions during the 1980s, banana, citrus and coconut cultivation, as well as large parts of the countries' infrastructure, were seriously damaged. In 1989, destruction of housing and crops by hurricane Hugo was near to total on Guadeloupe, Montserrat and the Virgin Islands and caused heavy damage to some of the other Caribbean islands. In a monoculture island, crop disease can also have a very severe impact. In 1981, smut disease almost completely destroyed the sugar industry in Saint Kitts and Nevis, again a predominant export earnings and employment-generating activity.

E. Vulnerability to global hazards

23. Small island developing countries are in the forefront of those affected by global hazards such as possible global warming and consequent rising sealevels, and waste disposal by dumping in the ocean. In addition, they generally have limited biological diversity and are prone to ecological instability, especially when their isolation is breached by tourism.

24. Rising sealevels pose a severe threat to the long-term existence of many low-lying atolls such as the Cocos and Keeling Islands, Kiribati, Maldives, Tokelau and Tuvalu, and some islands of Tonga and the Caribbean. This has already been exacerbated in some small island developing countries by the mining of coral reefs. In Maldives, for example, severe erosion of coral deposits has occurred around several islands and coral mining has now been banned. Salt water is intruding into surface and affects groundwater systems, as is the case in southern Kiribati and Tuvalu. Coral reefs and mangroves which afford coastal protection can be at risk.

25. Although the Convention on the Prevention of Marine Pollution by Dumping of Wastes and Other Matter, of 1972, was intended to end the use of oceans as dumping grounds for industrial garbage and radioactive materials, the oceans and their islands are still at considerable risk from accidental or deliberate dumping of waste, including toxic and non-biodegradable waste. The way in which waste that is dumped or spilled in the ocean is dispersed by the action of tides and currents is not totally understood, but it appears from sightings of waste washed up on remote islands that the dispersion is widespread. In particular, oil from seepage at sea has penetrated into the freshwater lenses of atolls and coral/limestone islands.

26. Some small island States have been attracted by payment offers against the provision of formal dumping grounds for industrialized countries, thus bringing the source of pollution into their immediate vicinity, particularly into lagoons. Atolls may suffer from severe problems in this respect, as water and agricultural land are scarce and fish from lagoons is often the main protein

source. The March 1994 amendment to the Basel Convention on the Control of Transboundary Movements of Hazardous Waste and Their Disposal, addressing the issue of the disposal of toxic and other dangerous, non-biodegradable waste, was a welcome step forward.

III. DEVELOPMENT PROSPECTS AND OPPORTUNITIES FOR SMALL ISLAND DEVELOPING COUNTRIES

A. Some fundamental observations

27. Greater regional cooperation and integration of island developing countries, as called for by the General Assembly in its resolution 47/186, would help them to alleviate the constraints of smallness and remoteness. By combining manpower, financial and natural resources, the islands concerned can provide a wider operating environment for high-level skills and a larger market for tradeable commodities and services, thereby increasing the potential for scale economies and joint production. Regional cooperation and integration can also serve to reduce the vulnerability of the islands as a whole, lower the unit costs of essential infrastructure and economic and social services and increase the effectiveness of island developing countries in international negotiations.

28. More regional cooperation among island developing countries can be particularly beneficial in several areas, such as the surveillance and development of marine resources, data networks, sea and air transport arrangements, telecommunications, disaster preparedness and relief, higher education, maintenance of cultural identity, agricultural research, promotion of tourism, banking and insurance, external resource mobilization and management, overseas representation, investment and market promotion, export credit financing, high technology medicine, negotiation of multilateral fishing agreements, environmental management and pooling arrangements for the sharing of specialized skills and expertise.

29. Despite the relatively limited success of regional cooperation in the past, some initiatives have been taken which constitute a basis for further progress in this area. There are already well established groupings - notably, the Caribbean Community (CARICOM), the Organization of Eastern Caribbean States (OECS) and the South Pacific Forum - which have not been fully utilized. Small island developing countries tend to look first to their individual development efforts, and to regard funds spent on regional institutions as a diversion from bilateral aid. Donors have concentrated on bilateral aid but recognize that regional agencies, including regional development banks, offer significant development advantages.

30. To be successful, regional collaboration needs to be based on pragmatic linkages, rather than generalized objectives. Past difficulties often related to the division of benefits, especially between larger and smaller members. OECS, with a membership of near-equals, has had a more harmonious history than CARICOM (and before it the Federation of the West Indies), whose members are much more varied in size and wealth. Instead of widespread regional collaboration, subregional groups or pairs of similar neighbouring small islands can form useful starting-points for regional cooperation. This section of the

report contains a selective analysis of those areas where such regional cooperation arrangements present good prospects and opportunities and also constitute a basis or model for similar initiatives in other sectors. Reference is made to specific initiatives which have been taken and to the inherent difficulties which have constrained these efforts.

B. Inter-island cooperative transport and communications arrangements

31. Airlines and shipping lines world wide have been experiencing financial difficulties of varying degree, with both large and small operators discontinuing their operations. Transport problems for small island developing countries (often Government-owned services) are exacerbated by distances and low levels of demand. There is an attraction in the notion of regional airline and shipping services with economies of scale and shared capital costs, but experience in the area of shipping has generally been disappointing. The Pacific Forum (Shipping) Line was founded jointly by Governments in the Pacific region and began operations in 1978. It has the specific aim of providing viable, regular regional shipping links so as to stimulate regional development and contain freight rates. There were 10 initial shareholders, namely the Governments of the Cook Islands, Fiji, Kiribati, Nauru, New Zealand, Papua New Guinea, Samoa, Solomon Islands, Tonga and Tuvalu; these have been joined more recently by the Marshall Islands as one of the joint shareholders. Another important regional service is offered by Sofrana Unilines, a long-established private company. Although tacit agreements between these and several other lines have reduced overtonnaging to some of the main ports, trunk services to peripheral islands (northern Cook Islands, Niue, Tokelau, northern Tonga, distant island groups of Kiribati and the outer islands of several archipelagos) are poor and the vessels used are in a very inadequate condition. 3/ The Pacific Forum Line has been supported by Australia, New Zealand and European Union aid, but it has been running at such a loss that aid donors have occasionally threatened to discontinue their support.

32. The West Indies Shipping Corporation (WISCO), which operates regional services among the Caribbean islands with calls at Miami, has suffered financial difficulties in nearly 30 years of existence. The major causes of such difficulties during the 1980s were the failure of some countries of the region to honour their commitments to subsidize the corporation, and the lack of profitability of the dual-purpose (cargo and passenger) shipping arrangements that once prevailed. WISCO, nevertheless, has retained a competitive advantage vis-à-vis the existing commercial services of the region, which tend to impose relatively high freight rates on the market.

33. One encouraging example among regional air services is Leeward Islands Air Transport (LIAT), which has benefited in particular from the development of tourism in the smaller Caribbean islands by providing feeder services from the intercontinental hubs. Otherwise, regional air services have proved little more successful than shipping services.

34. Some attempts have been made to produce new ship designs that could have regional applications, notable among them the general purpose "Pacific ship",

designed in the late 1980s under the South Pacific Maritime Development Programme and run by the South Pacific Forum. This concept has allowed ships of different lengths to be built with standard-design bow and stern sections, and envisaged for mixed passenger/cargo use with a range of options, including ramped bows. None has yet been built, however.

C. Cooperative arrangements in the external sector

1. Diversification of exports

(a) Exploitation of exclusive economic zones

35. Since most island developing countries have a narrow export base, one of the main challenges is to develop a diversified export structure. Exclusive economic zones, established under the United Nations Convention on the Law of the Sea, offer a significant mineral and energy resource base which constitutes potential for exports. Exploitation of energy resources in exclusive economic zones is still in its infancy, however; and despite promising reports on oil and gas reserves in the Pacific nothing substantial has been found as yet. A number of renewable energy sources are of particular interest to island developing countries and some research is being carried out in solar wave, tidal and wind power, mainly in industrialized countries. Ocean thermal energy conversion (OTEC), despite its high capital cost, offers specific attractions for small islands because of their typical location close to deep oceans and warm surface water. There are also possible associated benefits in using the nutrient-rich, cold, deep-ocean water in fish farms and in air-conditioning systems. The technology for OTEC has been developed through a number of experimental pilot plants, but little had been done to capitalize on it until recently. 4/ This is an area in which technologically advanced countries play an important role, but it is the developing countries, especially the island developing countries, that are geographically placed to benefit to the greatest extent. There would be considerable cost savings if such initiatives, especially at the research level, could be taken in a regional context.

(b) Tourism

36. Tourism offers significant opportunities to boost the export sector of many island developing countries. Tourism development and promotion, especially of new destination areas, can be most successfully undertaken at the regional or subregional level. There is a long-standing tourism development programme, the Tourism Council of the South Pacific, benefiting from donor-funded technical assistance. Twin-centre holidays in an island region are popular, often with one partner being larger or more established (for example, Mauritius with the Seychelles, Sri Lanka with Maldives, Barbados with Saint Vincent and the Grenadines). This allows the lesser-known destination to benefit from its partner's popularity and greatly reduces the marketing cost per arriving visitor. It also allows small island tourism to develop in a more gradual and controllable manner than would otherwise be the case. The development of eco-tourism is particularly apposite for many small island developing countries, but even established tourism destinations are not necessarily well equipped to carry this through.

37. Tourism offers employment opportunities, but often predominantly at a low skill level, and facilities to train more local staff for supervisory and management posts are inadequate. There are courses run in industrialized countries which are generally priced so that only a few (usually middle management) persons can participate. An example of initiative on a regional basis is the hotel and catering school of the Bahamas, which provides training facilities for the entire Caribbean.

(c) The role of the private sector

38. The role of the private sector in promoting the external trade sector is crucial. Larger island developing countries have traditionally preserved a strong private sector base, as they moved from plantation economies to industry and services, especially financial and tourism services, and from import substitution to export. Success in attracting the private sector hinges on having appropriate government policies and stability, but also on donor support. Examples of regionally based support for private sector involvement include New Zealand's Pacific Islands Industrial Development Scheme (PIIDS) which provides, inter alia, grants towards the cost of feasibility studies and up to 50 per cent of local venture capital. Others are the United Kingdom Commonwealth Development Corporation, which works inside and also in some countries outside the Commonwealth; the European Commission's Centre for the Development of Industry and the Canadian International Development Agency. Australia's Joint Venture Scheme can provide joint venture capital, but its performance has been limited by a lack of promotion. Most recently, the International Finance Corporation has established project preparation facilities in the South Pacific and the Caribbean to assist private entrepreneurs in project preparation and implementation.

2. Migration

39. Migration, as a source of income generation, is important to many small island developing countries, particularly in the form of remittances. Although data on remittances are often not available or incompletely recorded, information on private transfers, which are directly associated with migration from islands, are indicative of the importance of such remittances. In 1991, net private transfers exceed merchandise exports in Cape Verde, Samoa and Tonga (see table 4). Comparable data on Anguilla, the Cook Islands, Niue and Tokelau are not available but remittances in those small island developing countries are of great economic significance. 5/ Most migrants move in order to secure wage employment when suitable opportunities are not available locally. Economic and social differences between small island developing countries and developed countries and between remote islands and urban centres largely influence migration, as expectations rise and relative deprivation becomes more accentuated. In some small islands, such as Kiribati and Tuvalu, prospects for economic growth are very limited, and emigration is likely to continue. In order to limit unemployment problems, several Governments of small island developing countries prepare their surplus labour force for employment abroad. Examples include the Maritime Training Schools in Kiribati and Tuvalu and the Canada Caribbean Farm Workers' Programme supported by several Caribbean Governments. With the development of modern modes of transport, opportunities

for mobility have increased and long-distance migration has now become more general, compared to short-distance and seasonal migration of the past.

40. On the negative side, emigration invariably results in the loss of the more energetic, skilled and innovative individuals and does constitute a handicap to the development of many island developing countries. Some efforts have indeed been made to attract skilled manpower working overseas. The TOKTEN (transfer of knowledge through expatriate nationals) scheme supported by the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) is so far one of the few initiatives in this regard but its impact remains marginal.

3. Technological development

41. Modern information technology can play an important role in enhancing the capacities of small island developing countries to exploit their trade potentials and can offset to some extent the lack of skilled personnel. Two particularly interesting areas with potential for regional collaboration are electronic databases and telecommunications. Not only can national record systems be established in readily accessible form, but regional and international databases can be accessed through information technology. 6/ Distance learning can be facilitated by satellite communications, as demonstrated by both the University of the West Indies and the University of the South Pacific.

4. Multilateral trade arrangements

42. Traditional trading links between groups of island developing countries and their former or current metropolitan Powers have been enhanced by new economic arrangements such as the European Community - African, Caribbean and Pacific Group Convention of Lomé, the Caribbean Basin Initiative of the United States, Canada's CARIBCAN in the Caribbean and Australia's and New Zealand's SPARTECA for 14 Pacific Forum member States. Papua New Guinea has an even more beneficial agreement with Australia, the Papua New Guinea Trade and Commercial Relations Agreement (PATRCRA), reflecting the former colonial relationship, while the generalized system of preferences (GSP) negotiated under UNCTAD allows preferential treatment of exports from developing to developed countries including Japan. GSP schemes are particularly valuable to the Pacific island developing countries, which have not exploited the provisions of Lomé to their fullest extent. Under such schemes, island countries are dealt with mainly on an individual basis, and have little power to determine their terms of trade. Some successes have been seen when producers of similar commodities have banded together in the face of competition. For example, the banana-producing countries of the Caribbean achieved more in recent negotiations with the European Union than they might have done individually (under Lomé) in the face of competition from Central American countries.

43. Trade liberalization will follow the conclusion of the Uruguay Round of multilateral trade negotiations. This will mainly benefit industrialized countries and create limited potential for developing countries, including small island developing countries. The trade policies of the European Union and North

American countries, under the influence of "green consumerism", can have a limiting impact on small exporting countries. However, there will probably also be new export opportunities for island States in so far as the latter are usually perceived, in large market countries, as being "green" producers. The small scale of island production also matches well the small scale of demand for environment-friendly ("green") products. Different countries or groups of countries, such as the European Union, are setting standards for eco-labelling, and it will be difficult for small island developing countries to meet some of these standards, which are tailored to the requirements of the industrialized countries. UNCTAD, in collaboration with the United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP), has already made a proposal to strengthen the International Organization for Standardization with a view to establishing a fair system of international certification of environment-friendly products from which small island developing countries could benefit.

44. Similarly, individual industrialized countries have envisaged laws restricting imports of tropical timber from other than "sustainably managed" forests. Each importing country has its own definition of sustainability in this respect. An international agreement to which all countries would refer could define a certification system as a framework for negotiation with the International Tropical Timber Organization and other interested parties. Multilateral trade agreements with an environmental aspect are generally drawn up with little regard for developing countries in general and even less for smaller countries such as island developing countries, which have little or no power in negotiations although they have special needs and problems. There are limited efforts by island developing countries to bolster their negotiation capabilities in this regard.

5. Regional trade initiatives

45. In spite of the constraints in multilateral trade arrangements described above, island developing countries have adopted cooperative measures to enhance regional trade which could lead to even greater benefits than those offered by GSP schemes. The Trade and Investment Division of the South Pacific Forum secretariat has responsibility for promoting the manufactures of Forum island countries through trade fairs and market identification, and also has a product-specific training and marketing programme. In addition, a South Pacific regional trade commission has been proposed, with a trade promotion role in Europe, Japan and the United States, but the idea has not yet been implemented. CARICOM has an Export Development Project, and the OECS States, which are members of or associated with CARICOM, also use the services of the joint Eastern Caribbean States Export Development Agency (ECSEDA) for trade promotion and diversification. The Eastern Caribbean Investment Promotion Service (ECIPS), based in the United States of America, tries to attract North American investors to the eastern Caribbean.

46. Various bodies have run many successful regional seminars, workshops and training courses on export marketing and agricultural or industrial development. The Commonwealth Secretariat has taken many such initiatives in island developing countries and offers technical assistance on matters ranging from project identification and design to implementation and productive

operations. 7/ The International Trade Centre UNCTAD/GATT also has ongoing work in this area in many developing countries. Recent initiatives have involved the enhancing of the export marketing capability in Mauritius.

47. With regard to intraregional trade, opportunities are somewhat limited as many basic export commodities are produced simultaneously by neighbouring States. The CARICOM block originally tried to encourage a certain distribution of producing functions, especially in manufacturing, among its members, but this has broken down as each country preferred to continue in its old specialization. There is, however, a customs union which favours regional products at the expense of goods from outside. This has enhanced inter-island trade and reduced prices for consumers, as regional import duties have been removed.

D. Joint initiatives for disaster relief and security

48. It would be useful to draw up disaster preparedness plans and disaster relief measures at subregional and regional levels, and to develop further regional insurance and solidarity schemes to counter the "high-risk" designation and consequent high insurance premiums suffered by small island developing countries on the world market. In both the Pacific and the Caribbean, some attempts have been made to establish regional mechanisms, respectively, through the Disaster Relief Fund, established in 1976 to provide post-disaster assistance, and the Pan-Caribbean Disaster Preparedness and Prevention Project, established in 1980 to provide technical support and coordinate disaster preparedness activities. 8/

49. Member countries of OECS have joined with Barbados in establishing a defence treaty of mutual assistance in the prevention of smuggling and illegal immigration, customs and excise control, protection of off-shore installations, pollution control and national security.

E. Regional cooperative measures to combat global hazards

50. Global warming (although this is still a debatable phenomenon) and associated sealevel rises constitute the area of greatest apparent concern to many island developing countries. Other important environment-related issues are also being addressed. For example, toxic and hazardous waste management is being enhanced, in the small island developing countries of the Commonwealth, through the Commonwealth Fund for Technical Cooperation, which assists in human resource development and capacity-building.

51. Coastal zone management is a key component in alleviating problems of erosion, pollution and rising sealevels. Lessons can be learnt and applied from one island State to the other when the geology and the topography are similar. Regional seminars on the use of these specialized techniques are organized by the Commonwealth Secretariat in the Caribbean, Indian Ocean and Pacific regions.

IV. STRATEGIC FRAMEWORK FOR FUTURE ACTION

52. The intrinsic problems of small island developing countries and the prospects and opportunities for alleviating them which are outlined above will require to be put into an operational framework involving a coherent set of mutually supportive measures. The strategic framework elaborated below offers a benchmark for such an operational context, and the measures highlighted are those that require regional cooperation, which should be reinforced by international support measures. National and international collaboration will, of course, have to build on national initiatives by the island developing countries themselves. Such national initiatives have been the subject of previous reports. 9/

53. The strategic framework for future action designed to assist island developing countries in overcoming the special problems they face, outlined below, takes up some of the proposals made in the Programme of Action for the Sustainable Development of Small Island Developing States, adopted by the Global Conference on the Sustainable Development of Small Island Developing States, held at Bridgetown from 26 April to 6 May 1994. 10/ It will, therefore, be essential that the follow-up of these proposals fully take into account the agreed conclusions of the Programme of Action as well as the mechanisms for an effective coordination of the efforts by all parties concerned.

54. The Programme of Action addresses some of the key issues related to the challenges and prospects of island developing countries in general and small island developing countries in particular, including global hazards, natural disasters, coastal and marine resources, tourism potential, regional cooperation, science and technology, transport and communications, and human resource development. The Programme of Action specifically outlines measures that need to be taken at both the regional and international levels in all these areas, and underpins the requirement for effective collaboration in the proposed future action. In the Programme of Action, the organs, organizations and bodies of the United Nations system are invited to consider the establishment of focal points as a mechanism to ensure the effectiveness of inter-agency collaboration and promotion of economies of scale. Donors will also need to improve their coordination arrangements among themselves and with the United Nations organizations as well as with the small island developing countries in order to maximize the impact and benefit of available resources.

A. Action to promote cooperative transport and communications arrangements

1. Regional initiatives

55. Regional institutions will face a major challenge in devising innovative approaches to transport and communications problems, such as the development of low-cost advanced methods of moving cargo, or the improvement of access to telephone and related services. A further challenge is to improve the management and maintenance of existing transport and communications infrastructure. Increased cooperation in civil aviation, shipping and telecommunications needs to be fostered. Regional ports should be designated

and developed with facilities for transshipment of containers and other cargoes from trunk shipping routes to the smaller islands of the region. The potential for regional ship repair should be investigated and facilities should be developed as appropriate with regional funding.

56. To compensate for the effects of increased ship sizes and the consequent limitations on island-based ports of call by ocean-going services, there would be considerable benefits in the establishment of strategically placed regional container ports as intermodal nodes for the subsequent transshipment of containers or regional shipping services.

57. Although the freight-carrying role in many cases is limited by the size of aircraft that can be used, particularly for the small island developing countries, there is still scope for expansion in airfreighting through regional pooling arrangements. The use of seaplanes may be promoted for small islands where shortage of land or topographical features preclude the building of airfields.

2. The role of the international community

58. Despite the wealth of existing studies on the transport problems of small island developing countries, there is a need to analyse the current network of communications between small and remote island countries and the rest of the world and the links between small island developing countries themselves. Such an analysis should include proposals for adapting new transport technology to the needs of those countries. It should *inter alia* identify the best combination of air and sea services to meet their needs. This initiative should be spearheaded by the respective regional commissions in collaboration with competent United Nations organizations.

59. Small island developing countries themselves, with support from their donors, should try to standardize the types of vessels that they use on inter-island and intraregional shipping routes in order to minimize operating and maintenance costs. Attempts should, therefore, be made to design vessels that are best suited for regional or subregional needs.

60. Technical training in transport management and technology should be organized in regional training institutions, and high standards of professionalism and technical skills, tailored to local conditions, should be sought. Ongoing UNCTAD training programmes in the marine sector (TRAINMAR and the improvement of port performance programme) are particularly relevant in this respect and the special needs of small island developing countries will need to be addressed in particular.

61. High priority should be given by donor agencies to investment and technical assistance projects aimed at improving the quality, efficiency and safety of transport services and infrastructure, and the quality and coverage of telecommunications systems. Technical assistance should also be made available to small island developing countries in the formulation of transport policy, especially with regard to the ownership and regulation of inter-island shipping.

62. Air and marine safety projects should be accorded high priority by donor countries. The use of satellite technology for both telecommunications and navigation can have a major impact in this regard. This is an area with considerable potential for regional collaboration. Computer technology can also be utilized to design more efficient transport schedules, allowing services to be more profitable. Technical assistance is needed in the application of such new technologies, as well as in commercial procedures, safety, ship surveying and management.

63. Funding of new ships by or through donor agencies is normally contingent on suitable designs and standards of ship being selected. In addition, it would be helpful if regional standardization could also be achieved, to minimize the cost of maintenance and repairs.

B. Cooperative action to improve external sector performance

1. Regional initiatives

64. As part of the effort to expand the production base for trade, island developing countries need to strengthen regional capabilities for the effective surveillance and monitoring of marine and coastal resources and activities in the exclusive economic zones. Regional programmes should be developed to enhance relevant skills for the management and exploitation of coastal and marine resources. Island developing countries, particularly small islands, should jointly carry out cost-intensive and highly specialized studies on coastal resource management matters, including wetlands, determination of shoreline and ecosystem stability.

65. Whereas the development of tourism has predominantly been a national concern in the past, regional cooperation in this sector should take on an enlarged role in the future. It involves the development of coastal zones and the careful integration of tourist needs into the existing environment. Regional organizations should ensure that tourism and the environment are mutually supportive in regional cooperation schemes. Regionally, the assessment and development of potential complementarities between island destinations should be encouraged, and the development of packaged options covering several islands should involve joint marketing and training programmes. Finally, there is scope to strengthen regional mechanisms for the exchange of information in all aspects of the development of a safe and sustainable tourism sector, using the capacities of regional tourism organizations.

66. Identifying appropriate technologies is an important objective for small island developing countries that seek environment-friendly diversification of production and trade. To that end, there should be dissemination of information regarding available technology and strengthening of the capacity of such countries to absorb, manage and utilize environmentally sound technology through education and training. The ongoing UNCTAD activities in support of technology transfer to developing countries offer significant scope to address the specific problems of island developing countries in this area. This would be a response to one of the recommendations made by the expert group convened by the Secretary-General of UNCTAD in 1992.

2. International support measures

67. International programmes to support the efforts of small island developing countries to expand their export base should include technical assistance and training in the management of exclusive economic zones. Courses, seminars and workshops could be most effective on a regional basis.

68. Furthermore, research into and development of renewable energy sources that will support export development should be pursued with the needs and potential of small island developing countries in mind. Technical assistance and international funding will be needed for implementing sophisticated or costly energy-related schemes, such as OTEC.

69. Measures for promoting flexible specialization in the export sector of small island developing countries and fostering competitiveness in world markets, particularly in the area of trade in services (tourism, offshore financial services, data-processing etc.) should also receive high priority in donor assistance programmes. The expert group convened by the Secretary-General of UNCTAD in 1992 recommended inter alia that UNCTAD should take a leading role in the required follow-up work in this area.

70. There is also a need to continue analysing ways of reorienting training programmes in various areas of international trade in relation to the sustainable development of small island developing countries. International support will be necessary for the training programmes, which can be appropriately carried out on a regional or subregional basis. The TRAINFORTRADE programme of UNCTAD is currently addressing this need with respect to the Caribbean, the Pacific and the Indian Ocean.

71. The implications for small island developing countries of new international trade arrangements such as the Uruguay Round of multilateral trade negotiations, the European single market and the North American Free Trade Agreement need to be analysed. In accordance with the commitments made by the international community at the eighth session of UNCTAD, the latter has established, inter alia, an ad hoc working group on trading opportunities in the new international trading context, whose task is to identify new opportunities arising from the implementation of the Uruguay Round agreements with a view to enhancing the ability of developing countries to take full advantage of them. In the Final Act of the Uruguay Round, there is a provision for special emphasis on the specific needs of the least developed countries and it is expected that the group will consider the situation of least developed small island developing countries in this context.

72. In the context of environmental concern and awareness in large market countries, small island developing countries may face trade restrictions, in particular, non-tariff barriers. Environment-related measures in developed countries include standards on products and processes, waste management and recycling policies, and eco-packaging and eco-labelling standards. For small island developing countries, compliance with such international environmental regulations and standards may be technically difficult and very costly, and international support is required to enhance their capacity to overcome those difficulties. The UNCTAD/UNEP proposal to assist in strengthening the capacity

of developing countries in meeting the eco-labelling requirements established by importing countries should be further pursued. The small island developing countries will also benefit from this initiative.

73. A capacity-building mechanism to enable small island developing countries to be better prepared in the negotiation of multilateral environmental agreements should be established. Such a mechanism, which could be arranged in an interregional or subregional context, should involve encouragement of those countries to participate in the negotiations and assistance in implementing them.

C. Actions to enhance disaster preparedness

74. Most island developing countries are vulnerable to natural hazards including hurricanes, cyclones, drought and earthquakes. Often the impact can be devastating, affecting all segments of the economy and the infrastructure. Small island developing countries, in cooperation with regional and subregional organizations and the international community, should develop better disaster forecasting and warning capabilities, schemes of disaster preparedness and relief, policies and measures to mitigate the effects of disasters, and associated public awareness programmes. The ongoing work of UNCTAD in this area will require to be coordinated with any other initiatives taken, particularly at a regional level.

D. Protective measures against global hazards

75. Considering the potentially destructive impact of a rise in sealevel on some island developing countries, action should be taken at regional levels to monitor the actuality of global warming and its effect on sealevels. Mechanisms should be developed or strengthened to facilitate exchanges of information and experience between small island developing countries, and to promote technology transfers and training in the field of preparedness and anticipation. In this context, competent international organizations should provide technical assistance for accession to the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change and help countries that have ratified the Convention to assume their main responsibilities under it. Furthermore, the international community should expand its assistance to small island developing countries in combating toxic and hazardous waste disposal, nuclear testing and drug trafficking.

E. Other actions to promote regional cooperation

76. With the rapid advance in computer and information technology, island developing countries can more and more benefit from information systems, statistical databases and specialized software packages prepared by regional organizations. Specialized regional organizations should make arrangements for island developing countries in their regions to have access to the databases of those institutions by telecommunications or by providing down-loading facilities through which computerized data can be extracted for use on a local microcomputer.

77. It is now widely accepted that there is a need for the construction of an indicator of island-specific vulnerability that would integrate various criteria of economic resilience and sustainability. Such an indicator should assist individual island countries in assessing the magnitude of changes in certain aspects of their economic and physical vulnerability over time; provide those countries with an analytical tool for improving the determination of national sustainable development policies; and show the international donor community the possible need for changes in the volume and/or structure of development aid. While the initial methodological work involved should be carried out at the international level, it could be envisaged that experimental applications and statistical data collection and analysis be subsequently undertaken in a regional context.

Notes

1/ See A. J. Dolman, "Small island developing countries and the development potential of exclusive economic zones" (UNCTAD/ST/LDC/7), 27 March 1986.

2/ The Stabex system (system of stabilization of export earnings) has been called in consistently during the late 1980s and early 1990s to alleviate these fluctuations in several island developing countries.

3/ See A. D. Couper, "The problems of inter-island transport" (UNCTAD/RDP/LDC/32), 11 May 1990.

4/ A 100-megawatt generator is now being built by a United States company in India and a new international initiative, which was launched in March 1994, should lead to developments in both the Marshall Islands and the Virgin Islands.

5/ In some small Pacific islands, the role of remittances is so important that they have been characterized as "MIRAB (migration remittances aid and bureaucracy) economies" (I. G. Bertram and R. F. Watters, "The MIRAB economy in South Pacific microstates", Pacific Viewpoint, No. 27 (1985), pp. 47-59).

6/ See M. D. Romer, "Improving public sector performance in island developing countries through modern information technology (UNCTAD/RDP/LDC/33), 1990.

7/ See Commonwealth Secretariat, "The Commonwealth's contribution to sustainable development in small island and other small developing states" prepared for the Global Conference on the Sustainable Development of Small Island Developing States, Bridgetown, 26 April-6 May 1994.

8/ See L. Searwar, "Intrinsic disabilities of island developing countries" (UNCTAD/RDP/LDC/31), 11 May 1990.

9/ See, in particular, "Specific problems and special needs of island developing countries: report of the Secretary-General" (A/43/513), 1988; Report of the Meeting of Governmental Experts of Island Developing Countries and Donor Countries and Organizations (A/CONF.147/5-TD/B/AC.46/4), 1990.

10/ See A/CONF.167/9.

Table 1

Island developing countries: demographic and geographic data

Country or territory	Population (thousands) 1991	Land area (km²)	Density (inhabitants per km²) 1991	Urban population (percentage) 1991	Exclusive economic zone a/ (thousands of km²)	Maximum length b/ (km)	Dispersion factor c/ (degree of isolation) (metre/person) 1991	Population growth rate (percentage per annum) 1980-1991
A. States members of the United Nations								
Population 1 million or over								
Indonesia	181 388	1 904 569	95	31	..	5 295	0.03	1.8
Philippines	62 687	300 000	209	43	..	1 800	0.03	2.4
Sri Lanka	17 194	65 610	262	22	..	450	0.03	1.4
Madagascar	12 032	587 041	20	25	..	1 598	0.13	3.0
Cuba	10 712	110 861	97	76	..	1 250	0.12	0.9
Dominican Republic	7 197	48 734	148	61	.	390	0.05	2.2
Haiti	6 619	27 750	239	29	..	320	0.05	2.0
Papua New Guinea	4 013	462 840	9	16	..	1 875	0.47	2.5
Singapore	3 045	618	4 927	100	..	40	0.01	2.1
Jamaica	2 440	10 990	222	53	..	235	0.10	1.2
Trinidad and Tobago	1 249	5 130	243	70	77	210	0.17	1.3
Mauritius	1 083	2 040	531	41	1 183	1 255	1.16	1.0
Population less than 1 million								
Fiji	751	18 274	41	45	1 135	1 080	1.44	1.6
Cyprus	708	9 251	77	53	99	225	0.32	1.1
Comoros	564	2 235	252	28	..	175	0.31	3.6
Bahrain	518	678	764	83	..	60	0.12	4.0
Cape Verde	373	4 033	92	32	..	323	0.87	2.3
Malta	356	316	1 127	88	66	50	0.14	-0.3
Solomon Islands	325	28 896	11	11	1 116	1 450	4.46	3.0
Brunei Darussalam	264	5 765	46	58		150	0.57	3.3
Bahamas	259	13 878	19	65	759	869	3.36	1.9

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Country or territory	Population (thousands) 1991	Land area (km^2)	Density (inhabitants per km^2) 1991	Urban population (percentage) 1991	Exclusive economic zone a/ (thousands of km^2)	Maximum length b/ (km)	Dispersion factor c/ (degree of isolation) (metre/ person) 1991	Population growth rate (percentage per annum) 1980-1991
Barbados	258	430	600	45	167	34	0.13	0.3
Maldives	221	298	742	30	959	848	3.84	3.1
Samoa	161	2 831	57	23	96	165	1.02	0.3
Vanuatu	151	12 189	12	21	857	720	4.77	2.7
Saint Lucia	152	622	244	47	68	50	0.33	1.9
Sao Tome and Principe	118	964	122	43	..	220	1.86	2.1
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	108	388	278	21	68	92	0.85	0.9
Micronesia (Federated States of)	102	703	145	..	..	2 800	27.45	2.7
Grenada	91	344	265	..	27	76	0.84	0.2
Dominica	72	751	96	..	20	47	0.65	-0.3
Antigua and Barbuda	80	440	182	32	..	115	1.44	0.5
Seychelles	69	280	246	60	1 349	1 220	17.68	0.8
Marshall Islands	48	171	281	..	..	1 300	27.08	2.7
Saint Kitts and Nevis	39	360	108	50	68	43	1.10	-1.2
B. Others (population less than 1 million)								
Netherlands Antilles	191	800	239	55 d/	..	876	4.59	0.9
Guam	139	541	257	53 d/	..	48	0.35	2.5
United States Virgin Islands	111	342	325	54 d/	..	83	0.75	1.0
Tonga	100	747	134	21	596	700	7.00	0.5
Kiribati	74	726	102	37	3 550	4 500	60.81	1.9
Aruba	60	193	311	..	..	31	0.52	-0.6
Bermuda	58	53	1 094	100 d/	422	25	0.43	0.7
Northern Mariana Islands	45	477	94	..	..	690	15.33	2.6
Cayman Islands	28	259	108	100 d/	124	182	6.50	3.9
Cook Islands	17	236	72	25 d/	1 830	1 450	85.29	-0.2
British Virgin Islands	17	153	111	..	288	60	3.53	1.7

Country or territory	Population (thousands) 1991	Land area (km²)	Density (inhabitants per km²) 1991	Urban population (percentage) 1991	Exclusive economic zone a/ (thousands of km²)	Maximum length b/ (km)	Dispersion factor c/ (degree of isolation) (metre/ person) 1991	Population growth rate (percentage per annum) 1980-1991
Palau	15	441	34	..	..	690	46.00	2.7
Turks and Caicos Islands	12	430	28	51 d/	342	140	11.67	2.8
Montserrat	11	102	108	12 d/	34	18	1.64	0.5
Nauru	10	21	476	..	431	5	0.50	1.8
Tuvalu	9	26	346	..	857	680	75.56	1.3
Anguilla	7	96	73	..	17	25	3.57	1.0
Niue	2	260	8	23 d/	390	20	10.00	-1.9
Tokelau	2	12	167	..	290	179	89.50	..
All island developing countries	316 355	3 636 195	87	36	..	..	..	2.0
Island developing countries with population less than 1 million	6 696	110 012	61	48	..	..	..	1.8
Least developed countries	522 766	19 914 900	26	20	..	..	..	2.7
All developing countries	2 888 000	66 363 200	44	37	..	..	..	2.3

Source: UNCTAD secretariat calculations based on data from United Nations, World Population Prospects, 1992; World Bank Atlas, 25th Anniversary Edition, 1992; World Bank, Social Indicators of Development, 1993; and other international sources.

a/ The exclusive economic zone is a zone extending up to 200 nautical miles from the baselines from which the territorial sea is measured (see UNCTAD/ST/LDC/7).

b/ Distance is a straight line between the extreme points of the country.

c/ The distance between the inhabitants if all were distributed in a straight line along the longest dimensions of the country. This is a simple indicator of the difficulties of communication among the inhabitants.

d/ 1990.

Table 2

Island developing countries: social indicators

Country or territory	Average life expectancy at birth (years) 1990-1995 a/ M	F	T	Percentage of births attended by health personnel 1988-1990	Percentage of population with access to safe water 1988-1990	Daily calorie supply per capita 1989	Primary school enrolment ratio (percentage of relevant age group) 1990 b/ M	F	T
A. States Members of the United Nations									
Population 1 million or over									
Cuba	74	78	76	99 c/	..	3 141	105	100	103
Dominican Republic	65	70	68	44	62	2 359	95	96	95
Haiti	55	58	57	40	42	2 013	86	81	84
Indonesia	61	65	63	44	42	2 750	119	114	117
Jamaica	71	76	74	88	72	2 609	104	105	105
Madagascar	54	57	55	71	30	2 158	94	90	92
Mauritius	67	74	70	91	100	2 887	102	104	103
Papua New Guinea	55	57	56	20	33	2 403	77	65	71
Philippines	63	67	65	76	81	2 375	111	110	111
Singapore	72	77	75	100	100	3 198	111	109	110
Sri Lanka	70	74	72	85	60	2 277	108	105	107
Trinidad and Tobago	69	74	71	95	96	2 853	95	96	95
Population less than 1 million									
Antigua and Barbuda	69 d/	72 d/	71 d/	86	..	2 385	..	..	115
Bahamas	69	76	72	100	90	2 761	..	..	60
Bahrain	69	74	71	99	100	..	112	108	110
Barbados	73	78	76	98	99	3 279	113	108	110
Brunei Darussalam	73	76	74	97	98 e/	2 837	..	..	63
Cape Verde	67	69	68	49	74	2 706	120	112	116
Comoros	56	57	56	24	..	1 960	82	67	75
Cyprus	75	79	77	100	100	..	103	103	103
Dominica	68 d/	74 d/	71 d/	96	..	2 810	..	..	90
Fiji	70	74	72	98	79	2 887	122	122	122
Grenada	64 d/	67 d/	66 d/	81	..	2 706	..	..	100
Maldives	65	62	63	61 c/	70	2 386	..	..	65

Country or territory	Average life expectancy at birth (years) M	F	T	Percentage of births attended by health personnel	Percentage of population with access to safe water	Daily calorie supply per capita	Primary school enrolment ratio (percentage of relevant age group) M	F	T
	1990-1995 a/			1988-1990	1988-1990	1989	1990 b/		
Malta	74	78	76	98 c/	100 e/	3 248	111	107	109
Saint Kitts and Nevis	68 d/	72 d/	70 d/	..	..	2 639	..	..	76
Saint Lucia	68 d/	73 d/	70 d/	..	..	2 595	..	..	87
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	68 d/	71 d/	69 d/	..	..	2 604	..	..	81
Samoa	..	..	..	52	82	2 509	..	..	76
Sao Tome and Principe	..	..	..	63	42	2 419	..	..	77
Seychelles	66 d/	74 d/	70 d/	99	99	2 335	..	..	..
Solomon Islands	68	73	70	85	61	2 191			60
Vanuatu	..	..	..	67	71	2 567	..	..	88
B. Others (population less than 1 million)									
Anguilla	69 d/	72 d/	70 d/	..	..	..	..	..	..
Aruba	72 c/	77 c/	75 c/	..	..	..	..	..	..
Bermuda	71 c/	77 c/	74 c/	..	..	3 016	..	..	62
British Virgin Islands	69 c/	72 c/	70 c/	..	..	..	..	..	..
Cayman Islands	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Cook Islands	64 c/	70 c/	67 c/	100 c/	100 e/	..	..	..	98
Guam	73	79	73	..	100 e/	..	..	..	..
Kiribati	..	..	..	..	73	2 959	..	..	84
Montserrat	69 c/	72 c/	71 c/	..	..	..	..	..	100
Nauru	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	96
Netherlands Antilles	71 c/	76 c/	73 c/	..	..	2 913	..	..	74
Niue	63 c/	67 c/	65 c/	..	..	..	..	..	..
Palau	56 c/	62 c/	61 c/	..	..	..	..	..	..
Tokelau	63 c/	67 c/	65 c/	..	..	.	..	..	..
Tonga	61 c/	65 c/	63 c/	93 c/	96	2 983	..	..	53
Turks and Caicos Islands	69 c/	72 c/	70 c/	..	..	..	..	..	..
Tuvalu	..	..	..	..	100 e/	..	..	..	38
United States Virgin Islands	67 c/	71 c/	69 c/	..	..	..	..	..	..

Country or territory	Average life expectancy at birth (years) M	F	T	Percentage of births attended by health personnel	Percentage of population with access to safe water	Daily calorie supply per capita	Primary school enrolment ratio (percentage of relevant age group) M	F	T
	1990-1995 a/			1988-1990	1988-1990	1989	1990 b/		
All island developing countries	62	66	64	57	53	2 616	104 f/	100 f/	90 f/
Island developing countries with population less than 1 million	67	71	69	82	87	2 674	..	..	85 f/
Least developed countries	49	51	50	31	47	2 130	74	57	66
All developing countries	58	60	59	66	68	2 490	99	83	91

Source: United Nations, World Population Prospects, 1992; World Bank Atlas, 25th Anniversary Edition, 1992; UNDP, Human Development Report, 1991; UNESCO, Statistical Yearbook, 1992 and other international sources.

a/ Projections.

b/ Or latest year available.

c/ 1983-1988.

d/ 1985-1990.

e/ 1988.

f/ Unweighted average.

Table 3

Island developing countries: economic indicators

Country or territory	GNP (at market prices)			Sectoral distribution of GDP (percentage)		
	Total (millions of dollars)	Per capita (dollars)	Annual growth rate of per capita (percentage)	Agriculture	Industry	Service
	1991		1980-1991	1990 a/		
A. States Members of the United Nations						
Population 1 million or over						
Cuba	..	..	..	..	..	..
Dominican Republic	6 807	950	-0.2	18	22	60
Haiti	2 471	370	-2.4	31	38	31
Indonesia	111 409	610	3.9	22	40	38
Jamaica	3 365	1 380	-0.3	5	49	49
Madagascar	2 560	210	-2.4	39	11	50
Mauritius	2 623	2 420	6.1	12	27	61
Papua New Guinea	3 307	820	-0.7	29	30	40
Philippines	46 138	740	-1.2	22	35	43
Singapore	39 249	12 890	4.9	0	37	63
Sri Lanka	8 665	500	2.5	24	27	49
Trinidad and Tobago	4 525	3 620	-5.2	2	45	53
Population less than 1 million						
Antigua and Barbuda	355	4 770	3.8	4	17	78
Bahamas	3 044	11 170	1.3	12	37	51
Bahrain	3 679	6 910	-3.8	1	36	63
Barbados	1 711	6 630	1.3	5	16	79
Brunei Darussalam	..	..	..	2	84	15

Country or territory	GNP (at market prices)			Sectoral distribution of GDP (percentage)		
	Total (millions of dollars)	Per capita (dollars)	Annual growth rate of per capita (percentage)	Agriculture	Industry	Service
	1991		1980-1991	1990 a/		
Cape Verde	285	750	2.2	22	18	60
Comoros	245	500	-1.0	39	11	50
Cyprus	6 135	8 640	4.9	7	27	66
Dominica	175	2 440	4.7	24	15	61
Fiji	1 377	1 830	0.0	15	19	67
Grenada	198	2 180	5.3	16	15	68
Maldives	101	460	6.7	26	15	60
Malta	2 598	6 850	3.8	3	34	63
Saint Kitts and Nevis	156	3 960	5.8	8	26	65
Saint Lucia	380	2 500	2.9	14	19	67
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	187	1 730	5.2	18	19	63
Samoa	156	930	5.1	31	22	46
Sao Tome and Principe	42	350	-3.5	31	7	62
Seychelles	350	5 110	2.5	5	17	77
Solomon Islands	184	560	3.5	46	9	45
Vanuatu	175	1 120	-0.2	19	13	68
B. Others (population less than 1 million)						
Anguilla	..	..	..	..	..	..
Aruba	..	..	..	..	..	..
Bermuda	1 389 b/	24 370 b/	-0.1 c/	..	..	..
British Virgin Islands	166 d/	9 962 d/	..	3	12	84
Cayman Islands	..	..	..	..	..	..

Country or territory	GNP (at market prices)			Sectoral distribution of GDP (percentage)		
	Total (millions of dollars)	Per capita (dollars)	Annual growth rate of per capita (percentage)	Agriculture	Industry	Service
	1991		1980-1991	1990 a/		
Cook Islands	51 d/	2 960 d/	..	..	..	..
Guam	..	..	..	..	..	..
Kiribati	53	750	0.5	..	..	..
Montserrat	..	..		4	19	78
Nauru	..	..	..	..	..	..
Netherlands Antilles	1 522 d/	8 690 d/	..	..	..	..
Niue	..	..	..	..	..	..
Tokelau	..	..	..	..	..	..
Tonga	110	1 100	1.5	..	..	..
Turks and Caicos Islands	..	..	..	..	..	..
Tuvalu	..	..	..	..	..	..
United States Virgin Islands	..	..	..	..	..	..
All island developing countries	255 943	840	1.9	16 e/	26 e/	58 e/
Island developing countries with population less than 1 million	23 085	4 117	1.3	15 e/	22 e/	62 e/
Least developed countries	105 562	234	-0.4	43	16	41
All developing countries	2 896 394	1 003	0.8	15	35	50

(Footnotes to table on following page)

(Footnotes to table)

Source: UNCTAD Handbook of International Trade and Development Statistics, 1992; World Bank Atlas, 25th Anniversary Edition (1992); World Bank, Trends in Developing Economies, 1993; and other international sources.

a/ Latest year available. Industry includes construction.

b/ 1988.

c/ 1980-1988.

d/ GDP.

e/ Unweighted average.

Table 4

Island developing countries: external trade in goods and services

Country or territory	Total exports of goods	Service credit: total	Service credit: of which: travel	Private transfers net	Service credit total	Service credit travel	Col. 2 + Col. 4	Total imports (c.i.f.)	Exports as a percentage of GDP	Export concentration index	CIF/FOB factors	Food as a percentage of total imports
	(millions of dollars)				as a percentage of export of goods			(millions of dollars)				
	1991	1991	1991	1991	1991	1991	1991	1991	1990	1990	1991	1991
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)
A. States Members of the United Nations												
Population 1 million or over												
Cuba	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	7 680	..	0.845 a/	..	10.6
Dominican Republic	658.3	1 338.1	877.2	329.5	203.3	133.3	253.3	1 721	10.3	0.454	1.150	20.1
Haiti	162.9	92.0	66.2	86.2	56.5	40.6	109.4	374	6.4	0.131	1.150	56.1
Indonesia	29 430.0	3 424.0	2 515.0	130.0	11.6	8.5	12.1	25 869	24.0	0.267	1.120	5.5
Jamaica	1 145.2	1 096.5	764.0	167.7	95.7	66.7	110.4	1 799	28.1	0.640	1.155	14.6
Madagascar	344.0	146.0	27.0	53.0	42.4	7.8	57.8	441	10.0	0.309	1.205	14.0
Mauritius	1 194.5	651.2	251.7	79.5	54.5	21.1	61.2	1 575	46.7	0.342	1.148	11.2
Papua New Guinea	1 318.5 a/	254.9 a/	20.8 a/	-130.7 a/	19.3	1.6	9.4	1 403 b/	35.6	0.460	1.150	19.4
Philippines	8 840.0	5 623.0	570.0	473.0	63.6	6.4	69.0	12 051	18.6	0.285	1.067	9.3
Singapore	56 819.0	24 209.0	5 016.0	-339.0	42.6	8.8	42.0	66 108 c/	150.1	0.194	1.060	6.3
Sri Lanka	2 009.1	653.8	158.4	401.3	32.5	7.9	52.5	3 083	23.8	0.279	1.111	18.4
Trinidad and Tobago	1 751.3	455.7	103.6	-15.4	26.0	5.9	25.1	1 659	41.2	0.451	1.111	15.6
Population less than 1 million												
Antigua and Barbuda	32.0	349.4	314.0	15.8	1 091.9	981.3	1 141.3	215	1.0	0.344 a/	..	15.8
Bahamas	319.8	1 425.8	1 222.4	-6.9	445.8	382.2	443.7	2 460	88.5	0.615	1.064	9.0
Bahrain	3 468.9	1 280.9	162.0	-303.5	36.9	4.7	28.2	4 066	107.9	0.829	1.110	6.9
Barbados	143.7	688.9	460.9	32.0	479.4	320.7	501.7	695	12.2	0.292	1.100	16.8
Brunei Darussalam	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1 230	90.8	0.599	..	14.4
Cape Verde	6.3	21.1	5.5	45.5	334.9	87.3	1 057.1	120	1.6	0.639	1.150	38.6
Comoros	24.4	27.5	8.6	3.7	112.7	35.2	127.9	70	7.3	0.618	..	36.0
Cyprus	875.0	2 159.1	1 016.1	20.6	246.8	116.1	249.1	2 621 d/	17.3	0.210	1.102	10.9
Dominica	59.9 e/	37.4 e/	21.0 e/	13.0 e/	62.4	35.1	84.1	120	32.0	0.649	..	20.1

/...

Country or territory	Total exports of goods	Service credit		Private transfers net	Service credit total	Service credit travel	Col. 2 + Col. 4	Total imports (c.i.f.)	Exports as a percentage of GDP	Export concentration index	CIF/FOB factors	Food as a percentage of total imports
		total	of which: travel		as a percentage of export of goods							
	(millions of dollars)							(millions of dollars)				
	1991	1991	1991	1991	1991	1991	1991	1991	1990	1990	1991	1991
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)
Fiji	434.8	469.8	211.0	-24.9	108.0	48.5	102.3	652	43.4	0.352	1.136	16.4
Grenada	26.6 e/	69.9 e/	49.6 e/	17.0 e/	262.8	186.5	326.7	102	13.2	0.281	1.117	23.9
Maldives	59.2	119.4	87.2	-16.6	201.7	147.3	173.6	151	40.3	0.397 a/	1.100	8.2
Malta	1 154.2 e/	1 065.2 e/	495.3 e/	32.4 e/	92.3	42.9	95.1	2 114	49.1	0.407	1.111	8.9
Saint Kitts and Nevis	21.2	62.5	49.5	6.4	294.8	233.5	325.0	112	17.6	..	1.100	18.1
Saint Lucia	105.4	176.1	127.5	16.7	170.0	120.0	180.0	294	27.2	0.646	1.100	20.1
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	65.7	49.1	32.0	24.6	74.7	48.7	112.2	82	43.5	..	1.100	29.8
Samoa	7.7	38.1	16.0	3[illegible].0	494.8	207.8	897.4	99	7.8	0.414	1.099	20.3
Sao Tome and Principe	4.2 e/	3.9 e/	1.7 e/	0.1 e/	92.9	40.5	95.2	18	9.8	0.833	..	39.1
Seychelles	18.4	238.5	98.2	-2.5	1 296.2	533.7	1 282.6	172	17.3	0.758	1.150	20.2
Solomon Islands	83.4	36.0	9.3	-2.0	43.2	11.2	40.8	94	39.5	0.369	1.200	20.0
Vanuatu	14.9	106.8	34.8	-19.1	716.8	233.6	588.6	82	12.1	0.602	1.140	18.4
B. Others (population less than 1 million)												
Anguilla	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Aruba	902.1	475.8	388.4	-13.1	52.7	43.1	51.3	..	..	..	..	..
Bermuda	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	510 b/	3.6	0.663	..	16.6
British Virgin Islands	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	115 e/	..	..	..	7.1
Cayman Islands	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	283 e/	..	0.426	..	19.8
Cook Islands	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	50 e/	..	0.697 a/	..	22.8
Guam	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	420 e/	..	0.418 a/	..	13.5
Kiribati	1.8 f/	14.3 f/	0.7 f/	-1.3 f/	794.4 f/	38.9 f/	722.2 f/	16	13.5	0.500	..	56.2
Montserrat	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	10	1.5	..	..	39.3
Nauru	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	16 e/	..	0.948	..	18.8
Netherlands Antilles	77.2 g/	1 007.2 g/	277.2 g/	-62.2 g/	1 304.7	359.1	1 224.1	1 740	114.8	0.783	1.120	7.5
Niue	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	2 e/		..	..	43.2
Tokelau	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Tonga	10.6	24.6	7.6	30.6	232.1	71.7	520.8	59	12.9	0.480	1.090	26.2

Country or territory	Total exports of goods	Service credit: total	Service credit: of which: travel	Private transfers net	Service credit total	Service credit travel	Col. 2 + Col. 4	Total imports (c.i.f.)	Exports as a percentage of GDP	Export concentration index	CIF/FOB factors	Food as a percentage of total imports
	(millions of dollars)				as a percentage of export of goods			(millions of dollars)				
	1991	1991	1991	1991	1991	1991	1991	1991	1990	1990	1991	1991
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)
Turks and Caicos Islands	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Tuvalu	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	5 a/		..	..	19.0
United States Virgin Islands	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
All island developing countries	111 590.2	47 891.5	15 466.4	1 072.4	42.9	13.9	43.9	140 444	43.8	..	..	8.4
Island developing countries with population less than 1 million	7 917.4	9 947.3	5 096.5	-162.7	125.6	64.4	123.6	16 681	49.4	..	..	12.7
Least developed countries	14 791.8	5 254.4	851.2	2 075.2	35.5	5.8	49.6	23 458	8.0	..	..	21.2
All developing countries	787 352.4	223 798.4	54 316.3	10 120.4	28.4	6.9	29.7	798 500	20.0	..	..	9.6

Source: UNCTAD secretariat calculations based on UNCTAD, Handbook of International Trade and Development Statistics, 1992; IMF, International Financial Statistics Yearbook, 1992, and the World Bank.

a/ 1989.

b/ Imports f.o.b.

c/ Including transshipments to and from peninsular Malaysia.

d/ Excluding NAAFI imports.

e/ 1990.

f/ 1986.

g/ 1987.

Table 5

Island developing countries: official development assistance - total, per capita and total as a percentage of GNP, 1991

Country or territory	ODA from all sources a/ (net disbursements) Total (millions of dollars)	Per capita (dollars)	Total as a percentage of GNP
A. States Members of the United Nations			
Population 1 million or over			
Cuba	43.3	4.0	..
Dominican Republic	66.8	9.3	1.0
Haiti	182.5	27.6	7.4
Indonesia	1 877.3	10.3	1.7
Jamaica	165.6	67.9	4.9
Madagascar	454.5	37.8	17.8
Mauritius	67.3	62.1	2.6
Papua New Guinea	396.8	98.9	12.0
Philippines	1 055.2	16.8	2.3
Singapore	7.8	2.6	0.0
Sri Lanka	890.1	51.8	10.3
Trinidad and Tobago	-1.5	-1.2	0.0
Population less than 1 million			
Antigua and Barbuda	7.3	91.3	2.1
Bahamas	2.1	8.1	0.1
Bahrain	44.0	84.9	1.2
Barbados	3.3	12.8	0.2
Brunei Darussalam	3.6	13.6	..
Cape Verde	100.2	290.1	38.0
Comoros	65.2	115.6	26.6
Cyprus	40.3	56.9	0.7

Country or territory	ODA from all sources a/ (net disbursements) Total (millions of dollars)	Per capita (dollars)	Total as a percentage of GNP
Dominica	17.2	238.9	9.8
Micronesia (Federated States of) b/	30.1	295.1	..
Fiji	44.7	59.5	3.2
Grenada	16.5	181.3	8.3
Maldives	36.0	162.9	35.6
Malta	21.1	59.3	0.8
Saint Kitts and Nevis	7.3	187.2	4.7
Saint Lucia	22.8	150.0	6.0
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	14.3	132.4	7.6
Samoa	56.3	349.7	36.1
Sao Tome and Principle	52.5	444.9	125.0
Seychelles	24.2	350.7	6.9
Solomon Islands	35.0	107.4	19.0
Vanuatu	52.6	348.3	30.1
B. Others (population less than 1 million)			
Anguilla	6.3	900.0	..
Aruba	25.1	418.3	..
Bermuda	-4.8	-82.8	-0.3
British Virgin Islands	6.2	364.7	..
Cayman Islands	0.1	3.6	..
Cook Islands	13.5	794.1	..
Guam	..	..	..
Kiribati	20.1	271.6	37.9
Montserrat	9.4	854.5	..
Nauru	0.4	40.0	..
Netherlands Antilles	82.4	431.4	..

Country or territory	ODA from all sources a/ (net disbursements) Total (millions of dollars)	Per capita (dollars)	Total as a percentage of GNP
Niue	9.4	4 700.0	..
Tokelau	4.4	2 200.0	..
Tonga	19.3	193.0	17.5
Turks and Caicos Islands	17.6	1 466.7	..
Tuvalu	5.4	600.0	..
United States Virgin Islands	..	..	..
All island developing countries	6 125.1	19.4	2.3
Island developing countries with population less than 1 million	919.4	145.0	3.1
Least developed countries	15 749.9	30.1	14.9
All developing countries	57 047.2	19.8	2.0

Source: OECD, Geographical Distribution of Financial Flows to Developing Countries, 1988/1991; World Bank Atlas, 25th Anniversary Edition, 1992.

a/ DAC and OPEC sources.

b/ Including ODA to former Trust Territories of the Pacific Islands.

Table 6A

Island developing countries: debt structure, 1990

(millions of dollars)

Country or territory	Total external debt a/	Concessional debt	Multilateral debt		Debt to official creditors	Debt to private creditors		
	(1)	(2)	Concessional (3)	Total (4)	(5)	Long and medium term	Short term	Total (6)
A. States Members of the United Nations								
Population 1 million or over								
Cuba	29 469.7	24 541.2	9.9	24.0	24 933.3	1 297.3	3 239.1	4 536.4
Dominican Republic	3 722.6	1 190.6	440.8	906.8	2 728.2	562.6	431.8	994.4
Haiti	929.1	705.6	489.0	512.0	763.7	57.2	108.2	165.4
Indonesia	67 520.9	16 211.3	1 273.5	14 090.9	39 247.0	13 200.2	15 073.7	28 273.9
Jamaica	4 890.1	1 676.3	226.1	1 546.7	4 645.8	424.8	419.5	844.3
Madagascar	3 768.9	1 967.4	1 156.9	1 325.7	3 390.8	19.5	358.6	378.1
Mauritius	1 061.3	379.7	75.2	328.1	783.2	151.4	126.7	278.1
Papua New Guinea	2 606.0	519.1	333.3	696.1	1 149.7	1 159.6	196.7	1 356.3
Philippines	25 125.4	5 074.7	353.2	6 541.8	15 068.5	7 010.1	3 046.8	10 056.9
Singapore	4 235.4	144.0	10.2	56.7	623.5	2 858.0	753.9	3 611.9
Sri Lanka	5 684.4	4 317.5	1 611.6	1 882.9	5 244.7	1.6	438.2	439.8
Trinidad and Tobago	2 488.1	112.0	49.8	513.4	1 289.7	918.6	279.8	1 198.4
Population less than 1 million								
Antigua and Barbuda	194.7	29.3	14.2	18.1	107.7	..	87.0	87.0
Bahamas	910.0	11.7	5.8	71.1	126.1	470.0	313.9	783.9
Bahrain	1 674.2	387.2	18.8	35.4	692.5	650.8	330.9	981.7
Barbados	775.6	125.1	51.0	173.6	327.4	330.0	118.2	448.2
Brunei Darussalam	106.5	..	..	..	..	..	106.5	106.5
Cape Verde	154.3	117.7	78.4	93.0	148.2	2.4	3.8	6.2
Comoros	204.1	187.1	95.2	107.9	201.4	2.0	0.7	2.7
Cyprus	4 164.5	268.4	188.2	769.9	1 281.1	1 478.6	1 404.8	2 883.4
Dominica	200.1	185.4	66.9	69.3	191.4	..	8.7	8.7
Fiji	411.9	30.8	24.0	200.0	285.5	89.5	36.9	126.4
Grenada	82.5	54.5	35.5	36.0	72.0	..	10.6	10.6
Maldives	77.0	57.4	34.0	34.0	66.3	1.3	9.4	10.7
Malta	729.5	106.3	17.0	23.0	113.1	174.5	442.0	616.5
Saint Kitts and Nevis	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Saint Lucia	90.5	44.3	37.8	44.3	85.5	..	5.0	5.0
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	54.5	49.4	38.6	41.0	52.5	0.0	2.0	2.0
Samoa	82.2	76.5	70.0	70.8	79.7	2.4	0.2	2.6
Sao Tome and Principe	165.6	103.3	69.8	71.1	156.5	..	9.2	9.2

Country or territory	Total external debt a/ (1)	Concessional debt (2)	Multilateral debt: Concessional (3)	Multilateral debt: Total (4)	Debt to official creditors (5)	Debt to private creditors: Long and medium term	Debt to private creditors: Short term	Debt to private creditors: Total (6)
Seychelles	245.9	101.2	33.5	48.0	173.0	2.9	70.0	72.9
Solomon Islands	161.1	98.2	65.0	65.7	133.7	10.9	16.5	27.4
Vanuatu	344.0	38.0	16.0	16.0	53.0	190.0	101.0	291.0
B. Others (population less than 1 million)								
Anguilla	11.6	5.9	5.9	6.7	6.7		5.0	5.0
Aruba	202.1	92.0	..	..	198.6		3.5	3.5
Bermuda	1 123.8	45.6	..	..	120.0	325.0	678.7	1 003.7
British Virgin Islands	1 222.7	14.3	9.6	12.2	26.7	431.0	765.0	1 196.0
Cayman Islands	1 164.7	27.4	8.5	30.4	201.4	270.0	693.3	963.3
Cook Islands	8.9	4.3	4.3	4.3	8.8		0.1	0.1
Guam	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	
Kiribati	17.3	6.2	6.2	16.8	16.8	..	0.5	0.5
Montserrat	7.7	6.1	5.6	6.8	7.3	..	0.4	0.4
Nauru	163.3	..	..	..	..	113.0	50.3	163.3
Netherlands Antilles	1 179.6 b/	419.6 b/	14.7 b/	15.0 b/	646.2 b/	291.8 b/	241.6 b/	533.4
Niue	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Tokelau	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Tonga	55.4	40.1	19.0	19.0	50.6	4.0	0.4	4.4
Trust Territory of the Pacific Islands	26.4 c/	..	..	..	9.6 c/	..	16.8 c/	16.8
Turks and Caicos Islands	58.6	1.3	1.3	1.4	1.4	8.0	49.2	57.2
Tuvalu	1.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	..	1.1	1.1
United States Virgin Islands	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
All island developing countries	167 573.9	59 566.1	7 054.4	30 526.0	105 508.9	32 509.0	30 056.2	62 565.2
Island developing countries with population less than 1 million	16 072.0	2 726.7	1 024.9	2 100.9	5 640.8	4 848.1	5 583.2	10 431.3
Least developed countries	112 631.0	67 836.0	30 720.0	37 428.0	100 234.0	2 918.0	9 476.0	12 394.0
All developing countries	1 264 885.0	251 254.0	71 343.0	225 436.0	671 164.0	311 664.0	282 057.0	593 721.0

Source: OECD, Financial and External Debt of Developing Countries, 1991 Survey and calculations based on OECD sources

a/ Includes short-term debt and use of IMF.

b/ 1988.

c/ 1989.

Table 6B

Island developing countries: debt ratios, 1990

Country or territory	Total concessional debt as a percentage of total external debt (7)	Debt to private creditors as a percentage of total external debt (8)	Multilateral debt as a percentage of total external debt (9)	Debt as a percentage of GNP (10)	Debt service a/ (millions of dollars) (11)	Debt service as percentage of export of goods and services (12)
A. States Members of the United Nations						
Population 1 million or over						
Cuba	83.5	15.4	0.1	..	1 341.4	..
Dominican Republic	32.0	26.7	24.4	63.7	230.0	11.4
Haiti	75.9	17.8	55.1	38.7	32.0	12.9
Indonesia	24.0	41.9	20.9	66.8	9 227.9	31.1
Jamaica	34.3	17.3	31.6	135.6	685.8	29.5
Madagascar	52.2	10.9	35.2	139.1	245.5	47.3
Mauritius	35.8	26.2	30.9	43.8	168.8	9.5
Papua New Guinea	19.9	52.0	26.7	77.3	493.2	31.3
Philippines	20.2	40.8	26.8	57.2	2 995.1	23.0
Singapore	3.4	95.3	1.3	12.6	616.9	0.9
Sri Lanka	76.0	7.7	33.1	71.3	452.1	19.0
Trinidad and Tobago	4.5	48.2	20.6	55.8	324.6	13.9
Population less than 1 million						
Antigua and Barbuda	15.0	44.7	9.3	53.6	52.9	14.7
Bahamas	1.3	86.1	7.8	31.2	413.6	22.7
Bahrain	23.1	58.6	2.1		195.0	3.9
Barbados	16.1	57.8	22.4	46.2	91.4	10.9
Brunei Darussalam	..	..	..	..	8.4	..
Cape Verde	76.3	4.0	60.3	46.6	7.3	10.7
Comoros	91.7	1.3	52.9	89.9	2.4	6.3
Cyprus	6.4	69.3	18.5	73.9	595.9	18.7
Dominica	92.7	4.3	34.6	125.1	9.0	9.2
Fiji	7.5	30.7	48.6	31.1	107.5	11.7
Grenada	66.1	12.8	43.6	41.5	8.1	8.4
Maldives	74.5	13.9	44.2	80.2	7.5	4.4
Malta	14.6	84.5	3.2	31.1	73.0	3.3
Saint Kitts and Nevis	..	..	..	..	..	..
Saint Lucia	49.0	5.5	49.0	31.6	9.1	3.1
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	90.6	3.7	75.2	29.6	4.0	3.2
Samoa	93.1	3.2	86.1	67.9	6.0	11.7
Sao Tome and Principe	52.4	5.6	42.9	352.3	3.2	39.5
Seychelles	41.2	29.6	19.5	77.3	24.3	9.3
Solomon Islands	61.0	17.0	40.8	86.1	12.5	12.4

Country or territory	Total concessional debt as a percentage of total external debt (7)	Debt to private creditors as a percentage of total external debt (8)	Multilateral debt as a percentage of total external debt (9)	Debt as a percentage of GNP (10)	Debt service a/ (millions of dollars) (11)	Debt service as percentage of export of goods and services (12)
Vanuatu	8.7	84.6	4.7	206.0	50.0	45.7
B. Others (population less than 1 million)						
Anguilla	50.9	43.1	57.8	..	0.2	..
Aruba	45.5	1.7	..	..	7.9	1.4
Bermuda	4.1	89.3	..	61.4 b/	91.8	..
British Virgin Islands	1.2	97.8	1.0	..	102.2	..
Cayman Islands	2.4	82.7	2.6	..	112.1	..
Cook Islands	48.3	1.1	48.3	..	0.1	..
Guam	..	..	..	..	..	..
Kiribati	35.8	2.9	97.1	32.0	0.9	5.6
Montserrat	79.2	5.2	88.3	..	0.3	..
Nauru	..	100.0	..	..	17.6	..
Netherlands Antilles	35.6	45.2	1.3 c/	..	121.3 c/	11.2 d/
Niue	..	..	..	..	..	..
Tokelau	..	..	..	..	..	..
Tonga	72.4	7.9	34.3	55.4	1.7	3.9
Trust Territory of the Pacific Islands	..	63.6	..	..	..	..
Turks and Caicos Islands	2.2	97.6	2.4	..	25.5	..
Tuvalu	8.3	91.7	8.3	..	0.1	..
United States Virgin Islands	..	..	..	..	..	..
All island developing countries	35.5	37.3	18.2	57.5	18 976.1	11.9
Island developing countries with population less than 1 million	17.0	64.9	13.1	54.5	2 162.8	10.3
Least developed countries	60.2	11.0	33.2	93.2	5 010.0	25.2
All developing countries	19.9	46.9	17.8	42.2	141 893.0	14.7

Source: OECD, Financial and External Debt of Developing Countries, 1991 Survey; UNCTAD, Handbook of International Trade and Development Statistics, 1992; and World Bank Atlas, 1991.

a/ Includes short-term debt and use of IMF.

b/ 1989.

c/ 1988.

d/ 1987.

Table 7

Selected small island developing States and territories by population, income level, land area and distance from nearest continent

Population	Income level: per capita GNP in 1990 (United States dollars)	Distance from nearest continent a/		
		Less than 500 km	500 to 1,500 km	More than 1,500 km
Over 1 million inhabitants	Low income		Haiti* M	
	Lower-middle		Dominican Republic b/ L Papua New Guinea L Jamaica M	Mauritius S
	Upper-middle	Trinidad and Tobago M		
	High income	Singapore VS	Puerto Rico M	
150,000 to 1 million inhabitants	Low income	Comorros* S	Maldives* VS	Solomon Islands* M
	Lower-middle		Cape Verde* M Saint Lucia VS	Samoa* S Fiji M Vanuatu* M
	Upper-middle	Malta VS	Barbados VS Martinique S New Caledonia M	Reunion S
	High income	Bahamas M Bahrain VS Cyprus M Netherlands Antilles S	Guadeloupe S	French Polynesia M
Under 150,000 inhabitants	Low income	Sao Tome and Principe* VS		
	Lower-middle		Saint Vincent and the Grenadines VS Dominica VS Grenada VS Montserrat c/ VS	Kiribati* VS Tonga VS
	Upper-middle		Antigua VS Saint Kitts and Nevis VS	Seychelles VS
	High income		Bermuda VS British Virgin Islands c/ VS United States Virgin Islands VS	American Samoa VS Guam VS

Source: World Bank, World Development Report, 1992.

Note. The countries are classified into income groups according to GNP per capita. The groups are:

Low-income	$610 or less in 1990
Lower-middle income	$611-$2,450
Upper-middle income	$2,451-$7,619
High income	$7,620 or more

Land area:

VS = very small (less than 1,000 km²)
S = small (1,000-3,999 km²)
M = medium (4,000-39,999 km²)
L = large (40,000 km² and more)

An asterisk designates a least developed country.

a/ Distance from the island's capital to the nearest continental country capital or important town.

b/ 1989 GNP per capita.

c/ Estimated 1990 GNP per capita.

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